THE FARMERS' CABINET,

DEVOTED TO AGRICULTURE, HORTICULTURE AND RURAL ECONOMY.

Vol. II.—No. 8.] Philadelphia, November 15, 1837. [Whole No. 32.

Raising and Curing Pork.

Auburn, Frederick Co. Md., Oct. 29, 1837.

In vol. 2d, No. 6, of the Cabinet, a Chester county writer asks some person who is experienced in the preservation of pork, to communicate through the Cabinet, the best method of preserving that indispensable article in sweetness of flavor, during the hot months in summer. What little information I possess in curing bacon, as practised by me for a number of years, and which, on a fair trial, I am induced to believe will be found fully equal if not superior to the Burlington or even the celebrated Westphalia, I give with much pleasure.

In order, then, to have good *bacon*, it is necessary to have good *hogs*. By good hogs I mean those of an approved breed, of proper age and size; much more depends on the breed of the hog than is generally supposed, and much, very much upon the age and size. The most approved breeds for bacon, are the cross of the Parkinson with the Siberian, or the Chinese with our common stock; the meat is more delicate in flavor and taste, and easier to be raised and kept fat. Hogs from fifteen to eighteen or twenty months old, are the best ages; and weight from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and eighty pounds. Hogs of less age than twelve or fifteen months, have too little firmness and solidity to retain their juices, and after smoking become hard and dry; the same objection holds good as to weights under one hundred or one hundred and twenty. Hogs of two hundred pounds or upwards are too thick and large to be thoroughly salted and smoked; consequently difficult to preserve any length of time. The next thing to be considered is, the *mode* of fattening. I prefer a pen large enough to enable them to exercise and prevent crowding; in a close pen they will fatten quicker. I commence feeding with corn, either shelled and set in troughs, or thrown to them in the ears; for the first four or five days they should be fed sparingly to prevent surfeit, and never at any time should more be given them than they eat up clean. If given in large quantities, it will either produce surfeit and prevent them from eating for a day or two, or they will waste it by chewing and throwing it out again. From six to eight weeks, according to the plight of the hogs when penned, (to say nothing about putting up in the increase of the moon and killing in the full,) will make them fat enough. My hogs are fed three times a day, morning, noon and night, and entirely on good sound corn, except occasionally throwing them raw potatoes or cabbages, which serves to cool the system heated by the corn. Charcoal or rotten wood, containing a large quantity of pyroligneous acid, is constantly kept in the pen—they are regularly salted twice or thrice a week. I hold it as an established fact, that no food for hogs, except good sound Indian corn, can ever make bacon of the first quality. Slops will make fat hogs, but never can make prime bacon. Your hogs being now fattened, the next thing to be done is to kill or slaughter them. I have a small and very substantial pen made convenient to the slaughter house, so as to bring them into as small a compass as possible, for the greater facility of catching; as soon as one is caught he is brought out of the pen and laid upon his back on some loose planks a little elevated from the ground to admit the blood to escape; he is then stuck and held fast until dead; not permitted to struggle or wallow in his blood or become bruised, as a bruise at that time

will be manifest even after it is cooked and brought on the table. As to the mode of scalding and cleaning, &c. &c. it is unnecessary to give any directions. Unless the weather is so cold as to endanger its freezing, it is suffered to hang out all night so as to become thoroughly cold and stiff, when it will cut up much more smooth and neat. As to the mode of cutting up, I shall say but little. I make six pieces from each hog for salting, the feet should always be sawed off instead of being cut off with an axe or cleaver, as it will leave a smoother surface and prevent any place for the lodgment of skippers. The feet should be cut off a little below the joint. The next and most important matter is the salting. It is almost impossible to find two persons who agree as to the best mode; some use fine, some coarse salt, some cayenne pepper, some sugar, some molasses, some nitre, and some none, and some again prefer brining. But as I have promised to give you my method, I shall proceed to do so. After cutting up my pork, I select my hams and shoulders, lay them side by side, skin down, on some loose planks elevated at one end to permit the blood to drain off freely; they are then salted, or what is called sprinkled, with the best clean Liverpool ground alum salt. After remaining in this situation for two or three days, or until they become perfectly white, they are then taken up piece by piece and laid on a clean table; to each ham and shoulder, according to size, I put two tea-spoonfuls or more of finely pulverised nitre, rubbing with the hand both the flesh and the skin side; it is then well rubbed with salt and laid in a clean tub—after putting in as many pieces, side by side, skin down, as the bottom of the tub will contain, I fill up all the instertices with salt, then another layer of meat and salt, and so proceed until the tub is full. In four or six weeks, in a good cellar, it will have absorbed as much salt as it ever will, (you see from this remark, I do not believe in over salting hams and shoulders.) Ten days or a fortnight, before taking out of the tubs, I have some young green hickory wood cut and burnt by itself, the ashes collected and sifted; after taking the meat out of the tubs and wiping it dry with a clean course towel, it is laid in a wooden box sufficiently large to contain two pieces, the hickory ashes thrown over them and well pressed on with the hand; it very soon forms a hard incrustation over the meat and prevents as well evaporation, drying and dripping, and is also one of the best preventives against bugs and skippers. After hanging in the smoke house for a day or two, the operation of smoking commences, which I continue for three months, or until the first appearance of the *green bottle fly*. My meat is smoked exclusively with green hickory wood; the green oak will answer very well. It cannot be smoked too much, though with the smoke there should be as little heat as possible; the largest pieces should be hung more immediately over where the fire is made. Early in the spring, say the first of April, or earlier, should the weather be warm, or you discover any of those *green coat gentry* about your meat house door, take down your hams and shoulders and pack them away in your salting tubs, placing between each layer of hams or shoulders, pieces of lathes to prevent too much pressure or coming too much in contact, otherwise they will be apt to mould where they press one upon the other. After filling your tubs in this way until about one foot from the top, fill it up with hickory ashes pressed close. These are my ideas, obtained from experience, and thrown together in a very home spun manner, and should they on trial, be found to please the palates of others and be generally adopted, I may hereafter be benefitted, provided the water of Pennsylvania boils hams as well as the water of Maryland, as I sometimes travel from home and am a great lover of good bacon. In conclusion, I must observe, that there is really as much in the proper mode of *cooking* a ham as there is in *curing*. You Pennsylvanians boil too much; the best ham that ever was cured in Maryland or Virginia, may be spoiled in Pennsylvania by injudicious cooking. Hams cured in this way—like pure wine—improve by age and arrive not at perfection until they are over two years old. One thing I omitted to remark in its proper place. A ham, to come on the table in perfection, should never be cut before cooking—the skin should not be taken off—the thinner it is cut the better.

With great respect, and my best wishes for a wider circulation of your very useful paper,

I am your most obd't servant,

T. W. Johnson.

For the Farmers' Cabinet.

Lime.

The discussion respecting the application of lime as a manure, reminds me of the anecdote of the old man giving advice to his son. "Put your lime," he said, "if possible, on your sod before it is ploughed. If you can't put it on before it is ploughed, put it on as soon as possible afterwards. And if you can't put it on after it is ploughed, then put it on the best way you can."

My design, at present, is to communicate a few facts, which have come under my immediate observation, and the result of the experience of others, in the application of lime as a manure.

In this vicinity it is becoming almost uni-

versally the practice, to apply the lime to the sod, the year previous to its being planted with corn. With this method several advantages are connected. *First,* The lime may be hauled and spread, at any convenient time during the season—say, in May and June, between corn planting and hay harvest. *Second,* The crops will derive much more benefit from its being put on the land some length of time before it is ploughed, than to put it on just at the time of putting in the crop. It has been duly ascertained, that one of the principal effects of lime—is, the decomposition and bringing into action, the inert vegetable matter in the soil. When lime is spread on the sod, it comes into more immediate contact with the grass, and grass roots, than when the ground is first ploughed; in fields which have been partly limed on the sod, then ploughed, and the remainder limed at the time of planting with corn. I have observed in ploughing up corn stubble, that the part limed *on* the sod, ploughed up much mellower, than that limed *after* the sod was ploughed; presenting a rich vegetable mould not observable in the other part of the field.

There are no kinds of crops which have come under my observation—namely, corn, oats, barley, wheat, rye, potatoes, clover and timothy, but what are benefitted by lime, with the exception of flax. Where flax was formerly raised to great perfection, a very inferior article is now produced, since the application of lime. This has almost led to the abandonment of its cultivation in many sections of the country.

Oats, however, if the lime is applied fresh the season it is sown, will rather be injured than benefitted by it, in preventing it from ripening. I have seen oats, in fields which had been recently limed, send up an indefinite number of suckers or young stalks from the roots—which, together with the parent stalk, would scarcely ripen if allowed to remain the whole season in the field; and the stubble would sprout up profusely after the crop was taken off. But when the lime has been applied a year or two previous, it is decidedly a benefit to the oats. Lime can be applied with advantage, whether put on fresh, or left exposed to the elements till it becomes cold. This has been exemplified in the application of mortar from old buildings which has been known to produce lasting effects. I have been told by a person who has had much experience in liming, that he has had clover to succeed better, after putting it on fresh slacked and hot, than in any other way.

The Lancaster turnpike, in the vicinity of the Great Valley, is supplied with stone from the quarries of primitive limestone in the south side of the valley. I have observed a field adjoining the turnpike of a thin slaty soil—the subsoil of which is composed entirely of a slate gravel, (and perhaps there are many others of a similar nature and similarly situated;) which has had no burned lime applied to it for perhaps an age, and yet is remarkable for its productiveness—being far superior to many others in its vicinity, which are possessed of a much richer natural soil. Part of this field receives the flood of the turnpike, by which it becomes overspread with the pulverised limestone of the road; and the other part is visited, in dry weather, by clouds of dust—which in my judgment, is the great stimulant to its vegetable productiveness.

If these facts amount to any thing, it appears that lime applied in whatever form, is a stimulant to vegetation. But the form and manner in which it may be most advantageously applied, I leave for others yet to determine. A.

Chester County, November 2nd, 1837.

Agriculture.

MANURES.

This subject is one of the first importance to the farmer, and is as yet but very imperfectly understood among us. What has been your mode of preparing it? Have you used it long or rotted? What effect has it produced? What kinds have you tried, and which do you prefer? Lime, plaster, bones, poudrette, marl, or stable manures—what is your estimate of their comparative value so far as you have used them, and on what description of soils and crops have you found them severally the most effective and valuable.

WHEAT.

What is the kind of soil on which you have cultivated it most successfully? What is the average yield per acre? Is the average less now than formerly, or is it greater? and if either, to what cause is the difference to be attributed? What is your method of cultivation? and if you have adopted a rotation of crops, in what part of the course is the wheat crop placed? If you manure for wheat how do you apply it, and what manure do you prefer? What variety of wheat do you cultivate, and have you found any difference among the kinds in the liability to smut, blast, or be affected by insects? What insects have you found to injure your wheat, and at what stage of its growth? Have you cultivated spring wheat? and if you have tried various kinds, which do you prefer?

THE GRASSES.

The cultivation of the grasses is one of the most important objects that can be brought to the notice of the farmer; yet it is one upon

which little has been said, comparatively, and which is but little understood. Have you made any experiments upon their respective value for hay or for pasture? Do you prefer sowing each variety of grass seed by itself, or mixed? if the latter, what kinds do you sow together? Have you tried the Sanfoin, Luzerne, and Gama grasses, and with what success? What is your method of curing hay; and at what stage of its growth will grass make the best hay? What is the average weight of hay per acre on your farm and the vicinity? How does plaster and other manures affect your grass, and what is the best mode of manuring our farms permanently in grass?

CORN, BARLEY AND OATS.

Any information on the culture of these valuable crops will be acceptable. What is the general time of planting with you; and how do you prepare your ground for the reception of the seed? Do you guard your seed against depredation by scalding and tarring, or do you prefer planting from the ear? What insect attacks corn, and how may they be prevented? Which of the varieties in use do you prefer for seed, and what are the reasons for such preference? But two kinds of barley are cultivated to any extent among us; the two and the six rowed. Different opinions are entertained of their respective value and productiveness, which our farmers by a history of their experience in raising this grain can decide. It is necessary and right that it should be done. Will you assist in doing it? Oats are the most extensively grown of any of the small grain, and are usually the most productive. There are several varieties in cultivation, such as the common oat, the Tartarian, the Siberian, potatoe, and horse mane oat, and it would be well to have their conflicting claims to our preference decided. What is your experience in raising oats? What variety do you prefer, and for what reasons? Which is the most profitable crop, spring wheat, barley or oats. Is there any difference in their exhausting the soil, and if so, which has the most injurious effect? Have you discovered in these grains an inclination to smut, and have you succeeded in preventing it?

THE ROOTS.

The introduction of the culture of roots, such as the turneps, mangel wurtzel, carrots, &c. into England, by rendering the soil more productive, increasing the number of cattle and sheep, and doubling the quantity of grain produced, has at least added one-third to the means of subsistence in that country; within a very few years; and we may reasonably expect corresponding benefits from the extension of their culture in this. Potatoes have long been considered an indispensable article of consumption among us; and the culture is better understood here than that of the first-mentioned; still there is abundant room for improvement, both in the quantity and quality of these roots. What is your method of cultivating the above roots? What do you find to be the average yield per acre; what kind of soil the most suitable for them; what their value for feeding animals; and have you ascertained by experiment which of the kinds should be preferred by the farmer.

HORSES, CATTLE, SHEEP AND SWINE.

These form much of the wealth of agriculturists; and any remarks respecting raising, feeding, or fattening any of these will be considered valuable. We want information respecting the best breeds, and surest method of improving them, whether by importation, or by crossing. The comparative value of each to the farmer should also be made a subject of investigation; and the history of their diseases, with the best remedies for them, should not be forgotten. So large a part of our country is adapted to the dairy business, or the making of butter and cheese, and these constitute such an item in our prosperity, as well as comfort, that we particularly invite contributions on any subject relating to this branch of domestic economy.

DEPREDATORS.

Under this head may be included all those beasts, birds, and insects that prey on the productions of man's care and labor, and materially lessen his profits if not totally destroy them. Of these depredators, insects, such as the Hessian fly, the wheat worm, the wire worm, the grub, the various families of the plant louse, the tribes of caterpillars, in their several ways are the most destructive, and most deserve the investigation of the farmer and the man of science. Any thing that shall teach us how to prevent or destroy any of these depredators cannot be otherwise than acceptable to our readers.

We have barely touched on the multitude of subjects that will suggest themselves to the observing farmer, as topics of research and investigation. Fruits, buildings, farming implements, and articles of domestic economy, are all worthy of a place in our columns,—in short, any thing that can conduce to the prosperity, ease, lessening of severe labor, accumulation of intelligence, and moral respectability of its professors, and the establishment of agriculture on a more elevated basis than has heretofore been accorded to it, shall be most cordially welcomed by us.

It is not expected that any one individual

can be able to treat all the various objects connected with agriculture, or which are hinted at above, successfully; but there are few, if any, of practical or scientific readers, who are not able to communicate much information on some one or more of these topics, or others that we have been compelled to omit, which would be of great utility to our farmers, and impart additional value and usefulness to our columns. We know farmers feel a reluctance to lay down the plough for the pen, but when the season prohibits the use of the former, considerations of public good, should induce them to occasionally use the latter, in communicating the results of their reflection and experience in the pursuit of agriculture. We respectfully request our former correspondents, and our new subscribers, to think of these things.—*Genesee Farmer.*

Potatoes and Smyrna Wheat.

To the Committee on Agricultural Products presented for the several premiums offered by the Trustees of the Massachusetts Agricultural Society:

Gentlemen,—The field on which Potatoes were grown the present season, was broke up in August, 1834. The soil a deep loam, suitable for grain, (Chesnut land.) Early last spring the field was cross-ploughed, and 18 cords unfermented manure, evenly spread, and *deeply* ploughed in; sods harrowed down, then furrowed 3 feet apart, and seed placed 18 inches apart in the furrows, and covered 2 inches deep; hoed twice previous to being in the bud. On the 6th October, the vines or tops generally covering the ground, the cutting of them for fodder commenced. These tops, after drying 6 or 8 days, were packed away in the barn with wheat straw sprinkled with salt, say one peck to the ton, and will probably be equal in value to one half a ton of hay. It is believed, that when hay is as scarce as it is in this vicinity the present season, say worth $20 per ton, potatoe tops will more than pay for the expense of cutting and curing them; they are good food for neat cattle. The harvesting the roots was completed Oct. 12th, when, by careful measurement, the crop was found to be 515 bushels on the acre. The quantity of seed was 28 bushels; 26 the reds of La Plate, 2 the Roxbury whites.

PAYSON WILLIAMS,
JACKSON D. WILLIAMS.

Fitchburg, Oct. 15, 1825.

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Worcester ss. Oct. 16, 1835. Then the above-named Payson Williams and Jackson D. Williams made oath that the above statement, by them severally subscribed is true. Before me, EBEN'R. TORREY, J. P.

Expenses of Potatoe Crops.

Breaking up the field,		$4 00
Carting manure,		5 00
Cross ploughing and ploughing in manure,		6 00
Its proportion of 18 cords manure,		20 00
28 bushels seed at 2s.		9 33
Labor in two hoeings,		8 00
Labor in harvesting the crop,		22 00
Labor in cutting and curing the tops,		3 00
		$77 33
515 bushels at 25c.	$128 75	
Tops,	10 00	
	$138 75. Profit,	$68 42

Expenses of Wheat Crop.

2¼ bushels seed,	$4 50
Two ploughings,	5 00
Bushing and rolling,	1 00
Its proportion of manure in 1834,	15 00
Cradling and threshing and cleaning up,	12 00
	$37 50

35 bushels, worth	$70 00	
Straw,	10 00	
	$80 00. Profit,	$42 00

The field on which potatoes were grown in 1824 was well ploughed as early in the following spring as practicable, and 2¼ bushels of the Smyrna or Black Sea Wheat was sown, (second week in May, 1835,) ploughed in, bushed, and rolled.

Crops harvested first week in August; threshed (by horse power) in September, and after being carefully cleaned and measured, was found to be 35 bushels (of 60 pounds to the bushel) from the acre.

A much larger crop would have been grown but for the incumbrance of a granite ledge pervading a considerable part of the field, many rods of which approach within six inches of the surface. The drought of last summer severely pinched the wheat on the ledge.

PAYSON WILLIAMS,
JACKSON D. WILLIAMS.

Fitchburg, Oct. 15, 1835.

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Worcester ss. Oct. 16, 1835. Then the above named Payson Williams and Jackson D. Williams made oath that the foregoing statements, by them severally subscribed are true. Before me,

EBEN'ER TORREY, J. P.

Every nation has its traits. The Spaniard sleeps on every affair of importance; the Italian fiddles on every thing; the French promise every thing; the British islanders eat upon every thing; and the Americans talk upon every thing.

Preservation of Potatoes.

The experience of the present year proves that it would be very desirable to preserve potatoes, not only from the effects of the frost, but from the deterioration they are sure to undergo from sprouting and drying up, when exposed to the increased temperature of spring and summer. Potatoes ripe and fit for use, cannot be expected before the first of August, though some of the early varieties may be had for cooking before that time, if proper precautions are taken, and under usual circumstances, old potatoes ere that time of the year will be mostly worthless.

The laws which regulate vegetation are such, that if a seed or plant is kept at a state but little above the freezing point, growth cannot ensue; and hence experience shows that roots placed in the ground, as they have been sometimes by accident, at such a depth that the general influence of the sun can produce little or no effect on them,—can be preserved sound for indefinite periods of time. Profiting by the suggestions these facts afforded, Mr. De Lancy buried some potatoes of the preceding year's growth in his court yard, in a hole two and a half feet deep, under the protection of a south wall, where the sun shone but a little part of the day. The potatoes were buried in March, and about eleven months afterwards, the hole was opened, and to his surprise and pleasure, he found that, two or three of the roots excepted, which were perforated by worms, though sound, all were perfectly hard and firm without having the least symptom of vegetation, and in every respect as fit for planting or the table as new potatoes.

We wish that some of our farmers the coming autumn, would repeat this experiment; since if it should succeed here, one very great means of securing health and comfort, by substituting firm mealy potatoes for the wilted leaden roots inflicted upon us for two or three months every year, would be obtained. Perhaps a soil naturally dry, so that the roots should not be too much exposed to accumulated moisture, would be preferable; and as in the above experiment of De Lancy's, a spot with a northern exposure, or one as little subjected to the influence of the sun as possible should be selected.—*Genesee Farmer.*

A Cure for the Scouring in Calves.

Take a table-spoonful of finely powdered chalk and a like quantity of ground ginger, put it in a bowl, pour boiling new milk on it, say half a pint, stir it well and then give this dose about milk-warm, night and morning, to the calf, and in nine cases out of ten two doses will be sufficient to stop the disease.—*Farmer and Gardener.*

From the Maine Farmer.

Advantages of Fall Ploughing.

Mr. Holmes.—I believe that the advantages of fall ploughing land intended for spring crops, cannot be too strongly urged upon the attention of practical farmers. By the practice of fall ploughing, the farmer is enabled to take advantage of the most favorable season to get in his crops. In this northern region, this is truly a great advantage. The difficulty of procuring labor and the uncertainty of the weather, often makes it extremely difficult to perform this necessary operation so early that the crop may be got in, and receive the full advantage of the season, when our dependence is placed entirely on *spring ploughing;* in consequence of this delay many crops are injured or destroyed. This point is sufficiently obvious to every farmer.

The weather is quite as favorable for ploughing in the fall, as at any other season of the year—and the team is in good condition; and while the ground is open, every opportunity should be improved in thus *forwarding the spring's work.*

Another advantage in fall ploughing is in the destruction of insects, and preventing their ravages. A piece of wheat was pointed out to me, last spring, on ground occupied the year before by corn, and in equally good condition. The seed wheat received the same preparation—was sown at the same time, and by the same person; yet there was a marked difference in the appearance of the grain: one strip of which was quite thin, while the rest was the reverse. I inquired the cause, and was told that owing to the lateness of the season, and the freezing of the ground, one "land" was not ploughed in the *fall;* the other part of the field was fall ploughed. This fact accounts for the difference in the grain; for on the *spring* ploughed land was the thin, inferior grain. The injury was probably done by worms.*

Among the many remedies and preventives which have been proposed to destroy the *Grain Worm,* or lessen its ravages, the Plough seems to be almost entirely overlooked; yet if the judicious use of that instrument will not prevent the *increase* of the worm, I cannot tell what will.

The worm was observed by many farmers leaving the grain while in the field; and by examining the straw and harvest grain very

* A writer in the Farmers' Cabinet says—"Fallow very early spring ploughing does in some way, prevent the *cut worm* from injuring our corn crops." If so, there is no necessity for the general complaint that corn crops are injured by this worm. Very early spring ploughing in Maine, however, does not seem early *enough* to effectually destroy the worm, whatever it may do in Pennsylvania; and we therefore give the preference to *fall ploughing* and *winter fallowing.*

few of them can be found—and those *few* appear to be *dead* or *disabled.* It seems evident that the greater number, which left the head in the field, (as they appear ill-calculated for making *long journies,*) take up their abode among the stubble, or in the ground, where they remain through the winter, in a torpid or inactive state. Ploughing in the stubble immediately after the wheat is taken off, or later in the fall, I think cannot fail to have the effect of destroying many of *them,* as well as other insects. If the insects burrow deep in the ground—yet not beyond the reach of the plough—they will be turned up near the surface, and destroyed by the freezings and thawings of winter and spring; if they remain near the surface—among the stubble, or the roots of the grass—they will be turned under and buried so deep that they cannot find their way out in season to do mischief, if ever. To all insects that burrow in the ground, a *rout* by the plough, cannot prove otherwise than disastrous, after they have retired to "winter quarters."

If this view is correct it will be seen that the common method of seeding to grass with the wheat, and not ploughing under the stubble is calculated to give the wheat worm a fair chance to infect all succeeding crops. For if allowed to survive the winter, and emerge a *fly,* its *wings* will bear it to the neighboring wheat fields, in which it deposites the egg—produces the worm—and thus, if *unmolested,* increase a thousand fold yearly.

Then, to rid ourselves of this minute but formidable enemy, *when we seed to grass, we must substitute some crop not liable to be injured or infected by the worm, instead of wheat;—and plough under the wheat stubble,* WITHOUT RESERVE, *until the worm is exterminated.*

To do this, is in the power of every farmer; and I would ask for it your consideration and a *fair trial.*

October 3d, 1837.

Side Hill Plough.

MR. HOLMES:—I have for some time past felt desirous to call your attention and the attention of the agricultural community to the Side Hill Plough. There are several kinds of ploughs so called, but I mean that with a rolling share and mouldboard. You doubtless have seen them and perhaps know much better how to estimate their value than I—but what I have seen of them and the use I have made, and the experience of others much better qualified to judge of their worth than I, have convinced me that they ought to take the place of all other ploughs as possessing all the good properties of the best cast iron ploughs, to which is to be added those of turning the furrow to either the right hand or the left.

They are not patented. They are manufactured by a Mr. Nourse, of Worcester, Mass. and were introduced into the town by Samuel Davis, Esq.

There are now in, and within two or three miles of this village, two dozen or more of them in actual use, and I believe every man who has tried them is entirely satisfied with them, and has either gotten one for his own use or is determined to have one the first opportunity.

They are not only applicable to the side hill but equally to the level grounds, entirely superseding the necessity of a central or dead furrow. I have had my ploughing done for two years past with this kind of plough, and I do not hesitate to say that the ploughing has been as well done as it could have been done with any other plough in use.

I held the plough one half day to brake up land that has been mowed about five years. One yoke of oxen was all the team necessary. The work was done with ease to the cattle, and the man who owned the cattle and who drove them for me, has since purchased one of the ploughs for his own use.

One of our citizens contracted to build, and built a new road of about one mile on the shore of a pond where he was under the necessity of ploughing upon one side of the road altogether—he purchased one of these ploughs on purpose, and now says, he more than cleared the price of it in the time of his team and hands which would otherwise have been spent in travelling without ploughing. Much more might be said in favor of these ploughs, but my only object is to call the attention of those farmers who are about purchasing ploughs to do their fall ploughing. To such I would say—don't purchase until you have seen and are satisfied. All that will be necessary to satisfy you is to try, and I am certain you will buy.

They need no other recommendation in this vicinity—there will be very few other ploughs used in one or two more years.

Yours, very respectfully,

A FRIEND TO AGRICULTURE.

Mt. Vernon Village, Sept 8, 1837.

SEPT. 17, 1837.—I am this moment informed that Mr. Davis has sold 10 of the above ploughs within one fortnight.—*Maine Farmer.*

[Will some one acquainted with the plough noticed above, furnish the Editor of the Farmers' Cabinet with a drawing, and a full and correct description of the same?]

If you want to get rich, work hard and spend little.

Apples for Fattening Animals.

In the autumn of 1833, if I do not misremember, I was first induced to try the experiment—it was to me then an experiment. Having more apples than we needed for other uses, and fully convinced of the evil of making them into cider for common use, I suffered my hogs to run in the orchard and take the apples as they fell from the trees. Before the apples were fully ripened they began to fall; contrary to my expectation, my hogs began to gain flesh, and during the season they became fat with no other feed except the wash of the kitchen. Several that I had designed to keep, before I was aware of it, became too fat for the object I designed. This lot, if I mistake not, weighed as I butchered them from the orchard from 200 to 350 pounds each. The same season I suffered some of my sheep to remain in the orchard, and with equal success. The next season, our fruit was cut off. But the last two seasons, I have made my pork from my orchard, and during these seasons I have confined my hogs exclusively to *sour* apples; and still I have never killed lots of pork that were better fatted, more solid, or of better flavor. To carry the experiment farther, last year I took from my stock an old cow that had given milk through the summer, and fed her exclusively on sour apples. She ate about half a bushel, morning and evening. She fattened well, and made a first rate beef. It is, therefore, no longer with me a question whether apples are profitable for fattening domestic animals; the fact is fully tested.

HARVEY BALDWIN.

Hudson, O., August, 1837.

Proper Form and Shape of Cattle.

Whatever be the breed, there are certain conformations which are indispensable to the thriving and valuable ox or cow. When we have a clear idea of these, we shall be able more easily to form an accurate judgment of the different breeds. If there is one part of the frame, the form of which, more than of any other, renders the animal valuable, it is the chest. There must be room enough for the heart to beat, and the lungs to play, or sufficient blood for the purposes of nutriment and of strength will not be circulated; nor will it thoroughly undergo that vital change, which is essential to the proper discharge of every function. We look, therefore, first of all to the wide and deep girth about the heart and lungs. We must have both: the proportion in which the one or the other may preponderate, will depend on the service we require from the animal; we can excuse a slight degree of flatness of the sides, for he will be lighter in the forehand, and more active; but the grazier must have width as well as depth. And not only about the heart and lungs, but over the whole of the ribs, must we have both length and roundness; the *hooped*, as well as the deep barrel is essential; there must be room for the capacious paunch, room for the materials from which the blood is to be provided. The beast should also be ribbed home; there should be little space between the ribs and the hips. This seems to be indispensable in the ox, as it regards a good healthy constitution, and a propensity to fatten; but a largeness and drooping of the belly is excusable in the cow, or rather, notwithstanding it diminishes the beauty of the animal, it leaves room for the udder; and if it is also accompanied by swelling milk veins, it generally indicates her value in the dairy.*

This roundness and depth of the barrel, however, is most advantageous in proportion as it is found behind the point of the elbow, more than between the shoulders and legs: or low down between the legs, rather than upwards towards the withers: for it diminishes the heaviness before, and the comparative bulk of the coarser parts of the animal, which is always a very great consideration.

The loins should be wide: of this there can be no doubt, for they are the prime parts; they should seem to extend far along the back: and although the belly should not hang down, the flanks should be round and deep. Of the hips it is superfluous to say that, without being ragged, they should be large; round rather than wide, and presenting, when handled, plenty of muscle and fat. The thighs should be full and long, close together when viewed from behind, and the farther down they continue to be so the better. The legs short, varying like other parts according to the destination of the animal; but decidedly short, for there is an almost inseparable connexion between length of leg and lightness of carcass, and shortness of leg and propensity to fatten. The bones of the legs, and they only being taken as a sample of the bony structure of the frame generally, should be small, but not too small—small enough for the well known accompaniment, a propensity to fatten—small enough to please the consumer; but not so small as to indicate delicacy of constitution, and liability to disease.

Last of all the hide—the most important thing of all—thin, but not so thin as to indicate that the animal can endure no hardship; moveable, mellow, but not too loose, and particularly well covered with fine and soft hair.

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* See Farmers' Cabinet, Vol. I., page 136—article Choice of Live Stock.

Devonshire Cattle.

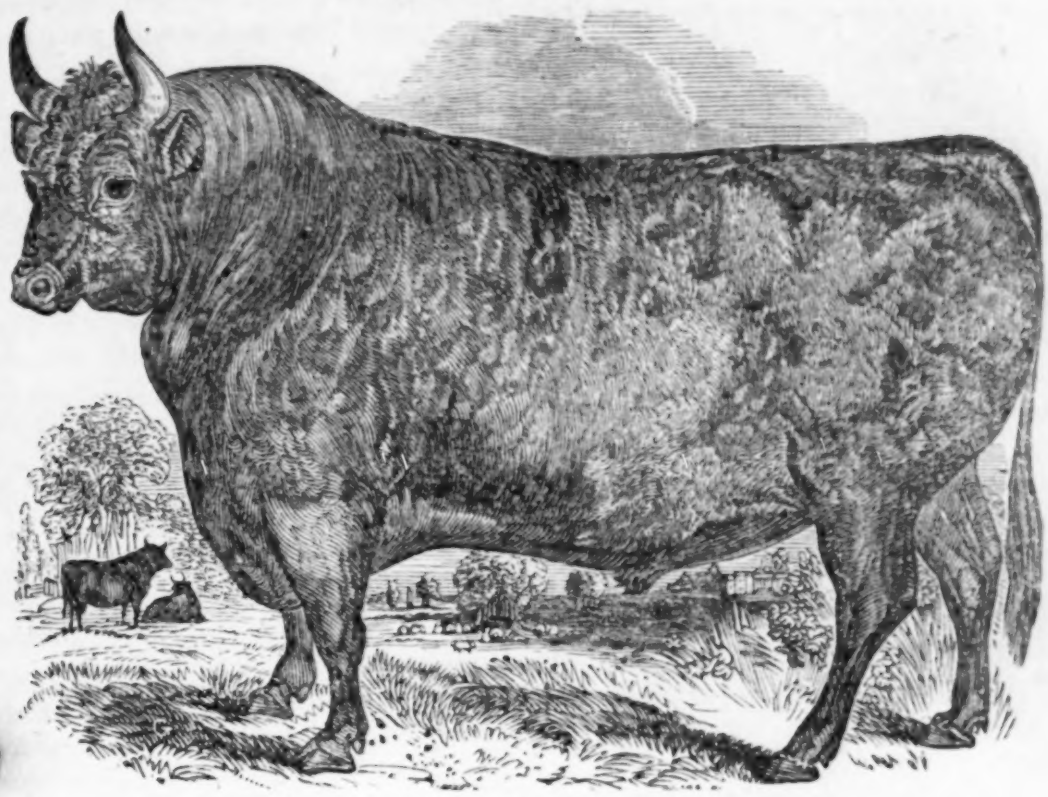

Fig. 20. The Devon Bull.

The more perfect specimens of the North Devon breed are thus distinguished. The horn of the *bull* ought to be neither too low nor too high, tapering at the points, not too thick at the root, and of a yellow or waxy color. The eye should be clear, bright, and prominent, showing much of the white, and it ought to have around it a circle of a variable color, but usually a dark orange. The forehead should be flat, indented, and small; for by the smallness of the forehead, the purity of the breed is very much estimated. The cheek should be small, and the muzzle fine: the nose should be of a clear yellow. A black muzzle is disliked, and even a mottled one is objected to by some who pretend

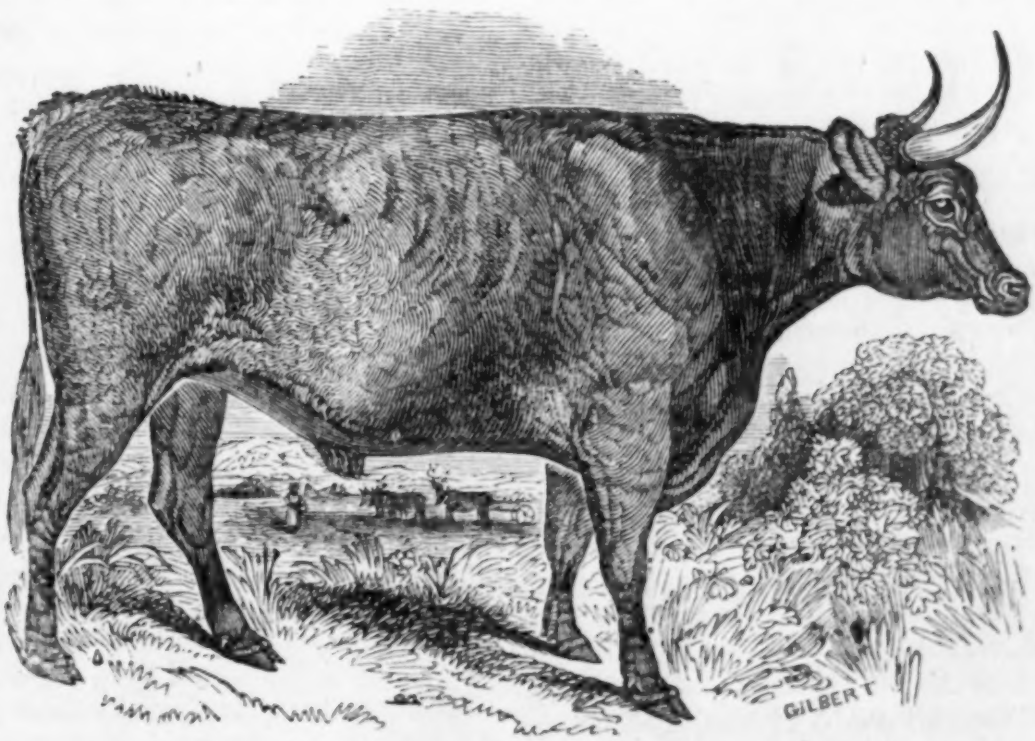

Fig. 21. The Working Devon Ox.

to be judges of the true Devon. The nostril should be high and open: the hair curled about the head, and giving, at first appearance, an idea of coarseness which soon wears off. The neck should be thick, and that sometimes almost to a fault.

Excepting in the head and neck the form of the bull does not materially differ from that of the ox, but he is considerably smaller. There are some exceptions, however, to this rule, and as an illustration of this, we here insert the portrait of a pure Devon bull (be-

longing to Mr. Western,) father of the ox and the cow, portraits of which will be published in the next number of the Cabinet. We may fancy that we trace in this singular and noble animal, the lineaments of the native, and scarcely reclaimed British bull.

The head of the ox is small, very singularly so, relatively to the bulk of the animal, yet it has a striking breadth of forehead. It is clean and free from flesh about the jaws. The eye is very prominent, and the animal has a pleasing vivacity of countenance plainly distinguishing it from the heavy aspect of many other breeds. Its neck is long and thin, admirably adapting it for the collar, and even for the more common and ruder yoke.

The want of the beautifully arched form of the neck, which is seen in the horse, has been considered as a defect in most breeds of cattle. It is accounted one of the characters of good cattle, that the line of the neck from the horns to the withers should scarcely deviate from that of the back. In the Devonshire ox, however, there is a peculiar rising of the forehand, reminding us not a little of the blood-horse, and essentially connected with the free and quick action by which this breed has ever been distinguished. It has little or no dewlap depending from its throat. The horns are longer than those of the bull, smaller and fine even to the base, and of a lighter color, and sometimes tipped with yellow. The animal is light in the withers; the shoulders a little oblique; the breast deep, and the bosom open and wide, particularly as contrasted with the fineness of the withers. The fore-legs are wide apart, looking like pillars that have to support a great weight. The point of the shoulder is rarely or never seen. There is no projection of bone as in the horse, but there is a kind of level line running on to the neck.

These are characteristic and important points. Angular bony projections are never found in a beast that carries much flesh and fat. The fineness of the withers, the slanting direction of the shoulder, and the broad and open breast, imply both strength and speed, and aptitude to fatten. A narrow-chested animal can never be useful either for working or grazing.

To be continued.

Morus Multicaulis Trees.—The editor of the Baltimore Farmer and Gardiner, has from 25,000, to 30,000 Morus Multicaulis Trees, now growing at his residence, with roots of one, two, and three years old, which will be ready for sale this fall, and which he will sell on moderate terms.

For the Farmers' Cabinet.

Onions.

On reading an article in the Cabinet of March 15th, 1837, upon the culture of onions in Wethersfield, I concluded to try the experiment of raising them on Delaware soil.

I dressed an eighth of an acre with four cart loads of well rotted stable manure, being part of a parsnep lot planted last year for spring feeding of milch cows. After the manure was very evenly spread over the ground, it was ploughed in ridges and planted with nine ounces of seed.

I did not pursue the Wethersfield plan of sowing the seed in rows, but put them in hills; supposing it would take less seed, less work, and produce equally as good a crop. The instrument to plant them was made in the following manner. A lath about four feet long with four holes bored through it with an inch auger ten inches apart, which were filled with pegs that projected through the lath about one and a quarter inches; then a handle of three feet long was put in the centre of the lath to carry it by; this instrument was then laid across the bed, which, by stepping on it with one foot on each side of the handle, four holes were made ten inches asunder; then moving it about a foot, and repeating the operation, the bed was soon filled with holes ten inches one way, and about a foot the other. A few seeds were then dropped in each hole, the beds raked and rolled, which finished the operation of planting.

As soon as the young plants began to appear, the beds were raked between the hills with a small rake made of tenpenny nails, which retarded the growth of the weeds, and caused the young onions to advance in size and strength before the time of weeding and dressing them with a hoe had arrived. I regard this little operation of early raking the beds quite an improvement; for part of the ground was not managed in this way, and the process of weeding was much more difficult; besides, in extracting the weeds, many of the young onions would fall down, and some of them were pulled up in consequence of the weeds having acquired a growth equal to the onions.

They were dressed several times through the season by pulling the weeds and using the rake and the hoe. The work being done at intervals, and mostly by children, no very accurate account was kept of the value of the labor, but it did not exceed ten days work for a full hand. They grew very large, some of them measuring thirteen and a half inches in circumference, and many of the hills had three or four onions clustered together; they are excellent for the table, fine

flavored, with none of that rank, strong taste so common to onions raised from sets. One of the beds was measured, by which the average produce was over fifty bushels on the whole ground, which would exceed four hundred bushels to the acre.

Although the produce equalled Wethersfield in amount, I was somewhat disappointed on finding several bushels of them not of a merchantable kind; they had thick necks, sort of evergreens; they would neither die nor dry, commonly called scullions by gardeners.

I see it stated, I think in the American Gardener, that no crop is more difficult to accommodate, with a suitable soil, than the onion, in consequence of its disposition to behave in the manner I have stated. The ground this experiment was tried upon, is rather a stiff clay, but very much softened with lime and manure, yet I presume it is not exactly the kind of soil they like. I intend, next season, to select a more sandy location, for I am rather pleased with the partial success of the operation.

The onion does not seem to want as much manure as other root crops, particularly the potatoe and ruta baga turnep; they require, it is true, considerably more labor, but the value of the crop would, upon an average, be double, and more, if the difficulty I have mentioned could be surmounted.

I suppose that two and a half or three acres of onions could be raised by hiring one additional hand through the summer season; besides it is sometimes profitable to increase the varieties of labor on a farm, when workmen are employed to perform it. In mowing time and harvest, we frequently have spells of wet damp weather, and a field of roots not only gives employment to all hands during such intervals, but pays the expense of an additional hand through the summer, by which the severe operation of gathering hay and grain is very much reduced.

SUBSCRIBER.

Wilmington, 11th mo. 8th, 1837.

N. B. Since reading Observer's complaint in his last essay upon "hollow horn," I have concluded to put my article by for a season.

Observer says some one has told him I intended to "beat him out," and that I have expressed myself in this kind of language, which appears to have tired him and made him weary of the subject I can assure all whom it may concern, that I have used no such words, nor ever intended to convey to any one such meaning. I said the inconsistency of Observer must eventually defeat all his arguments; but even if I had been so silly as to use a threat or bravo, instead of reasoning fairly, is there any thing in it that ought to make a man abandon the field who felt conscious of his power to maintain it from his own positions? I am ready at any time to show that Observer's arguments are erroneous upon the subject of "hollow horn," as well as upon the "action of the absorbant vessels."

Business makes a man as well as tries a man.

An Essay on Indian Corn,

Delivered by Peter A. Browne, Esq., L. L. D., before the Cabinet of Natural Science of Chester county, Pa.

Continued.

Peter Kalm, professor of economy in the University of Aobo, in Swedish Finland, and member of the Swedish Royal Academy of Science, traveled in America in 1748 and '49, and in a work which he afterwards published, speaking of the Indians of North America, he says: "Their food is very different from that of the inhabitants of other parts of the world. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and rice, were quite unknown to them. *Maize*, some kind of beans and mellons, made up almost the whole of Indian gardening."—2d vol. p. 95.

"At first the Swedes settlement at New Jersey and Pennsylvania were obliged to buy *maize* of the Indians for sowing and eating," —p. 111.

"The Indians had their little *plantations* of *maize* in many places, before the Swedes came into this country."—p. 114.

"Before the Europeans came into this country, the Indians *planted maize*, beans and gourds."—p. 192.

Peter Kalm was a pupil of Linæus, and a good Botanist, and therefore his evidence is very creditable upon this subject. He died in 1778, sixteen years after Linæus published his second, and twenty-five years after he published his first edition of Species Plantarum.

"In a work entitled "The British empire in America, containing the history of the discovery, settlement, progress of the state of the British colonies in the continent and islands of America," 2nd ed. London, 1741, vol. 1, p. 184,—the author says, speaking of New England, "Oats, barley, peas, beans, and all other sorts of advantageous grains, are cultivated and flourish here; but the *Indian corn* is most planted. There was no other corn in this country before the English came hither." I shall here insert the account of it given to the Royal Society, by Mr. Winthrop, who was a member. "The natives called it Wiachin, and in some southern parts of America it is known by the name of maiis or maize. The ear is a span long, composed of eight rows of grain, or more, according to the goodness of the ground; about 30 grains in a row. It is of various colors, as red, white, yellow, blue, olive, greenish, black, speckled, striped, and sometimes in the same field and in the same ear. The stalk grows six or eight feet high; that of New England is not quite so tall as Virginia, and at Canada it is shorter than in New England," &c.

At page 185, he says, "The Indians thresh

it as they gather it, and dry it well on mats in the sun, and bury it in holes in the ground, lined with moss or mats, which are their barns."

At page 185, he says, "The Indians boil it until it becomes tender, and eat it with fish or venison, instead of bread: sometimes they bruise it in a mortar and so boil it. The most usual way is to parch it in the ashes, stirring it so artificially as to be very tender without burning. They beat it in a mortar and sift it into a fine meal, which they eat dry or mixed with water. The English mix it into a stiff paste and make bread of it, which they bake all day or at night. The best sort of food which is made of it is called samp," &c.

No Indian corn grows wild *now;* but both that and the kidney bean were found among the natives. The Indians have a tradition that the first grain of corn was brought hither by a blackbird, and the first bean by a crow.

In page 327, speaking of Calvert's first establishment in Maryland, "The infant colony supplied themselves with Indian corn at Barbadoes, which, at first arrival, they began to use to save their English store of meal and oat meal. The Indian women perceiving that the servants of the English did not know how to dress it, made their bread for them, and taught them to do it for themselves. There was Indian corn enough in the country, and these new adventurers soon after shipped off 10,000 bushels for New England to purchase salt fish and other provisions."

In page 428, speaking of the mode of living in Virginia, he says, "The bread which the better sort of people use, is generally made of wheat, the poorer eat *pone** made of *oppone*, or Indian meal."

At page 441, speaking of the productions of Virginia, he says, "The Indians had pease, beans, and potatoes, before the English came among them; but the staff of their food was *their corn*, of which we have given a large description in the history of New England."

What are the inferences to be fairly adduced from this body of concurring testimony? It must be recollected that it emanates from many persons of different habits and propensities, and belonging to different nations, civilized and savage; among whom there could have existed no connivance or collusion: it has been made public at different periods of time, and under various circumstances; and relates to different parts of a widely extended territory, and it is therefore not obnoxious to the objection of having been an ancient error originally fallen into by accident, and unintentionally adhered to and copied by subsequent writers. Standing as it does upon independent ground, each piece of testimony corroborates and strengthens the others; and the whole taken together, establishes in a way that defies refutation that the Indian corn claims this hemisphere for the place of its nativity. Many of the articles to which I have referred, representing the Indian corn to be a plant new in Europe, were published at a time when such an error could not have escaped detection. The discovery of a new world was the great lion or wonder of that day: the accounts given by travelers of an immense country which had been until that period not only unknown, but which many of the learned supposed did not, and could not exist;—of its singular inhabitants, and of its various animal and vegetable productions, was sought for and read with avidity by princes and subjects, by scholars and laymen, and although the Indian Corn was every where asserted to be a native of the Americas and to be unknown in the rest of the world, yet not a solitary individual was found to correct the error if it was one, or throw the slightest discredit on the assertion. This task was reserved for more modern times, and will not again, I hope, find credence with any one who seeks only for the truth. As to the objection that no one has stated that he has seen the Indian Corn growing wild and spontaneously in America, I cannot perceive that there is much weight in it, especially as no one pretends to have seen it growing wild or spontaneously in any other part of the world. By the Indians it was doubtless found growing wild, but at the time that this country was visited by Europeans it was every where cultivated. I am informed by a gentleman residing in the state of Kentucky that there was, some thirty or forty years since, a tradition among the western Indians that the seeds of the plants they cultivated were presented by the Great Spirit: that on a certain occasion the Great Spirit had descended to this earth in the form of a beautiful squaw: that where she first touched the ground with her feet there sprang up the Indian Corn; where she placed her right hand, grew the bean, and where she put her left hand pumpkins and squashes, and where she seated herself on the ground grew tobacco.

In the United States this plant has always gone by the name of *Indian* Corn, (except where *par excellence* it is designated by the name of 'Corn,'*) and there is no doubt but that this name was given to it by the earliest

* This name is still preserved in the South, where a "pone bread" means *Indian corn* bread.

* In one of the Counties of Pennsylvania, a man was indicted for stealing so many bushels of "*Corn*," and upon the exception being taken by Counsel that this was not a perfect description of Indian Corn, it was over-ruled by the Court.

visiters, whom, history tells us, called this country, "the West Indies."

Indian names for many preparations of Indian Corn have descended to us: 'samp' in the North, and 'hommony' in the South, are names for a dish of corn coarsely broken and boiled like rice. "Sagamente," is the whole grain with the hull taken off and boiled in like manner. "Sack-a-tash," among the northern aborigines was the name of a dish composed of unripe corn and beans boiled together.

Is not the manner in which the Zea is described by the early botanical writers evidence that the Zea mays was then unknown, and that it has since been admitted into its class and order? The Stem is ranged under the *Culm*, which originally meant a *hollow* stem-like straw.

In describing the female flowers, the conical process upon which the seeds are set, is, (for want of an appropriate term, called a *spike*,) whereas a spike is an inflorescence, in which the flowers are sessile, (sitting down,) placed immediately on the *main stem*, without the foot-stalk, like the mullen. This description answers well enough for the *male*, but not at all for the *female* flowers of the Indian corn, which are not placed on the stem at all, but upon a conical process set upon the same.

The covering of this conical process, and the seed had no terms among these early botanists by which it could be described. It was ranged under the part of "Calyx," or cup of the flower, but comes naturally under no definition of that I have ever seen in a botanical work.

In fact, so little are the classes and orders fitted for the reception of this plant, that one botanical writer (Mrs. Lincoln,) after arranging it under the 19th class monœcia, and order Triandria, mentions it again under the order Dignia; (the grasses.) "This plant," (she says, p. 126,) "botanically called Zea Mays, although of the natural family of the grasses, having a culm-like stalk, and other distinguishing characteristics of grass like plants, is yet placed in the class monœcia."

5. What is the general opinion of the learned?

In the first volume of the Encyclopedia of Geography, by Murray, p. 175, is the following:

"In the west of Europe, maize has the same range of climate as the vine, but reaches further north, on the east side. In its *native American* soil, it forms the chief article of food, from the River La Plate to the Lakes of Canada, requiring a short but warm season of four months; it is well suited to the climate of the new world up to the lat. of 45°."

In 1748, Montesquieu wrote his Espris des Lois. In speaking of the soil of America, he says, "The cause of there being so many savage nations in America, is the fertility of the earth, which SPONTANEOUSLY produces many fruits capable of furnishing them nourishment. If the women cultivate a spot of land round their cabins, the MAIZE grows up presently."

One of the varieties of corn used in the United States still bears the name of the "King Philip Corn," from Philip, king of the Wampanoags, who in 1674 made war with the settlers of Massachusetts. [See Adams' History of New England, p. 118.]

See also an essay of Col. Taylor, of Virginia, on Agriculture; the March number of the Cultivator, edited by J. Buel, of Albany, New York; an essay of S. W. Pomeroy, of Brighton, Massachusetts, and published December 19, 1819, in the Massachusetts Agricultural Repository; Smith's History of Virginia; and Govenor Drayton's View of the Carolinas; in all of which the Indian corn is considered as a native of America.

To be continued.

Farmer's Work.

ON THE USE OF LIME IN RAISING WHEAT.

Lime is not only a necessary ingredient in every soil, which is intended to produce a vigorous and profitable vegetation, but it is wanted to compose a part of the substance of certain plants, and wheat is one of the number. No plant can grow in a soil which is entirely destitute of the earthly ingredients which must constitute its substance; and lime is found by chemical analysis, always to exist in wheat, both in the straw and in the kernel.

It is well known that the lands in N. England, which are at all suitable for any kind of grain, or root crop, will produce good crops of wheat, when first cleared from their native growth of wood. But after having been tilled for some years, such lands yield wheat with difficulty, and it is often found impossible to raise it by any of the modes commonly adopted for wheat culture. In process of time, the soil appears to lose its faculty for producing wheat and our farmers think themselves forced nearly or quite to forego its culture.

The same variations have been likewise observed in Europe. Wheat countries, by continued cultivation, have become almost incapable of yielding wheat. The cause and remedy of this partial barreness, this falling off as regards particular plants, were alike involved in obscurity, till modern discoveries in chemistry threw light on the subject. It has been found that the texture of every soil is defective, unless there is a mixture of

three kinds of earth, viz: clay, sand and *lime;* and that lime in some of its combinations exists in wheat, both in the straw and in the kernel. In some soils, fertile in other respects, lime may either have no existence, or be found in very minute portions, and be soon exhausted. If lime be a necessary constituent for wheat, and does not *naturally* exist in the soil in which we attempt to raise wheat, it must be supplied by *art*, or wheat will not grow. Or, if native lime exists in the soil in small quantities, the land may bear wheat till the lime is exhausted, and then become incapable of producing that plant, till a fresh supply of lime, marl, pulverized bones, or some other calcareous substance is added.

John Young, Esq. in an able work entitled *Letters of Agricola*, p. 299, states as follows, viz:

"It cannot be denied since the plentiful use of lime has been adopted,* lands in Europe will produce wheat, which otherwise were incapable of bearing it. The rye lands of Herefordshire which were reported by Dr. Beale, in the year 1636, as incapable of producing wheat, have been so much fertilized by the subsequent introduction of this fossil manure as to be successfully applied to the growth of that and every other grain. This and similar effects may be referable in part to the subserviency of the earth in the more perfect formation of the vegetable structure; for we know that all birds if confined in a cage and denied all success to lime, will lay eggs with soft shells. So wheat may labor under some such analagous imperfection, unless the carbonate of lime comes within the range of its roots."

Dr. Anderson, a celebrated British writer on agriculture, gave an account of a field, which had a top dressing of lime for the purpose of raising wheat, but the lime by accident was not applied to a small patch in the field, and in that patch there was no crop, while every part of the field to which lime was applied, produced fine wheat. It would be easy to adduce many more instances to prove that lime in Great Britain is considered not only useful, but indispensable, for the production of wheat. A British farmer we believe never undertakes to raise wheat, without the use of lime as a manure, and American farmers, (unless a great change has recently taken place in that branch of husbandry,) rarely makes any use of lime as manure for wheat.

To be continued.

Custom in infancy becomes nature in old age.

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* Marshall's Review of the County Reports to the Board of Agr., vol. 2, p. 247.

Cow House or Stable.

The floor under a cow-house should be very tight, so that none of the stale may be lost, which, when mixed with other substances, is of great value as manure. The most healthy stables are those which are open to the east, or have an eastern aspect. It is a common practice to build them too close. The stable should never be completely closed up, however cold the weather may be, although it is desirable that strong draughts of cold or damp air should be guarded against, especially in winter. It may be held as a general rule that stables or cow-houses are too close when on entering the breath is affected, or any smell of urine can be perceived.

It is also very important to keep cow-houses or cattle stables clean and well littered. Dung left in stables soon renders the air unwholesome, and is the cause of disorders. Cows in a stable should be allowed a square space of at least six feet each way for each cow. Two or three ventilators near the ground on the north side afford, at a trifling expense, an excellent way of renewing or sweetening the air in stables in the summer time, and on the south side in winter, without occasioning draughts; and these may be shut when necessary, by means of straw, or, what is better, a sliding door.

It is of no small importance that the floor of a cow-house be very tight, so that none of the stale be lost, which is of great value as manure, when mixed with other substances. A farmer might as well lose the dung as the urine of his beasts.

"The common cattle stalls of our country are so ill contrived, and so straitened in their dimensions, that the cattle are constrained to lie down in part in their own dung. This dries and forms a thick coat on their hind quarters, from which they are not relieved till they shed their hair in the spring. They are thus rendered *uncomfortable*. To be uncomfortable is to suffer some degree of *pain;* and no one will suppose that animals in *pain* can *thrive*, or preserve their plight with the same food equally with others perfectly at ease. Even hogs, though prone to wallow in the mire in warm weather, are always pleased with a dry bed, and thrive better when kept clean."*

The following from the Memoirs of the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society, is extracted from a letter from R. Smith to J. H. Powell, and will be of use in directing the most economical management of dairy cattle.

My barn is constructed according to the best Pennsylvania models. The yard is to

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* Colonel Pickering.

the south of it. On the east and west sides are cow stables, containing one hundred and ten well made stalls, ventilated by a sufficient number of windows and double doors. At the tails of each range of cows there is a drain made of strong planks, and so fixed as to receive all their dung and urine. These several drains have a sufficient declivity to carry all the fluid matter to their southern terminations, where they intersect similar drains, which convey all this liquid manure into a cistern, fifty feet long. This cistern is so placed and constructed as to receive not only the urine of the stables, but also the liquid matter of the farm-yard. In it there is a pump, by means of which its contents are pumped into a large hogshead, fixed on a pair of wheels drawn by oxen. To the end of this hogshead is attached a box pierced with holes, in which this liquid manure floats through a spigot and faucet, and is then sprinkled over the ground as the oxen move forward.

For the Farmers' Cabinet.

The writer of this would be obliged if any reader of the Cabinet would give information through the columns of it, where the best apparatus can be procured for boiling or otherwise converting the juice of the Sugar Beet into sugar, and also the best form and dimensions of the building used for that purpose, &c. &c.

Lancaster, November 4, 1837.

For the Farmers' Cabinet.

Can any of the readers of the Cabinet inform the public, through the columns of that paper, where a supply of Sugar Beet Seed can be procured, the quantity and price?

Gap, Lancaster Co. Pa.

In order to accommodate our numerous friends, we have procured a quantity of the Sugar Beet Seed, price one dollar per pound. Orders, accompanied by the money, will be promptly attended to, and purchasers may rely on having the genuine Sugar Beet Seed.

Sugar Beet.

That the soil of our state is adapted to the cultivation of the sugar beet is sufficiently proved by the large growth which we see repeatedly noticed in our papers from the interior. Among the last is the product noticed in a Bedford paper of Col. M'Elwee's Beets of the White Silesian or Sugar species, exceeding *nine and a half pounds.* We are told of others having been raised in Bedford county exceeding in weight the above.—*U. S. Gazette.*

Sugar Beet and Mangle Wurtzle.

One thousand and seventeen bushels of Sugar Beets and Mangle Wurtzle were topped and pulled by nine men in *three hours.* This is the production of a little over an acre of ground in Newton Township, Gloucester county, New Jersey. Many of the Beets weigh twelve pounds.—*U. S. Gazette.*

Spring Wheat.

The Spring Wheat noticed as for sale in our last, by Mr. Peirce, is $12 per barrel, the price having been raised from ten to twelve, in consequence of the lateness of the season and the great difficulty of procuring a suitable supply. ☞ Orders to insure attention, must be sent without further delay.

Raising of Calves.

The best method of raising calves, we think is to do so by hand. If taken from the cow as soon as dropped, there will be no difficulty in teaching it to eat. Loblolly made of half a pint of corn meal and a pint of new milk given to it about thrice a day will be sufficient to keep it. It is the easiest thing imaginable to teach the calf to suck up its food; by simply pressing down its head into the pan containing the mixture, with one hand, and inserting the fore finger of the other into its mouth, it will instinctively suck up its beverage. If it be desirable to husband your milk, you may begin to decrease the quantity which you add to your loblolly when the calf is about three weeks old, putting in less milk each day until the calf imperceptibly forgets its taste altogether. When the calf is six weeks old you may turn him out in a grass lot; but if you desire to push its growth, continue its loblolly twice a day; by doing so you will increase its size fully one-third.

Use of Lime.

Certain acids and acid combinations often exist in soil or subsoils, and produce infertility. Lime, by forming new combinations with these bodies, frequently neutralizes their effects. Thus, if sulphate of iron, (known to exist where sorrel grows) or copperas, which is a combination of sulphuric acid with the oxide of iron, exists in the soil, and lime be applied, the lime will combine with the sulphuric acid of the copperas, and form a gypsum or plaster of paris, and thus convert into fertilizing matter, a substance which in excess is injurious.—*Low's Agriculture*, page 62.

ARTICLES.	Philadelphia, Nov. 14.	Baltimore. Nov. 10.	New York, Nov. 14.	Boston, Nov. 9.
Beans, white, per bush	$1 37–1 62½	1 25—0 00	0 14—0 15	1 37—1 75
Beef, mess, new, per bbl	14 00–15 00	11 00–13 00	11 00–13 00	12 50–14 00
Bacon, western, per lb	8— 10	7— 9	8— 10	.....
Butter, extra, per tub	14— 15	16— 20	18— 21	17— 18
Butter, fresh, per lb. (market,)	18— 25	20— 25	20— 25	25— 28
Hams, per lb	12— 14	13— 13½	12— 14	14— 15
Hog's Lard, per lb	7½— 8½	9— 10	7— 9½	8— 9
Cheese, American, per lb	10— 12	9— 11	9— 11	8— 9
Beeswax, yellow, per lb	26— 27	23— 25	26½— 27½	26— 32
Beeswax, white,	.....	38— 40	38— 40	38— 40
Bristles, American,	42— 65	25— 65	25— 65	.....
Flax, American,	8½— 9	9— 10	6— 7	9— 12
Flour, best, per bbl	9 00—9 50	8 00—8 75	9 00—0 00	8 87—9 00
GRAIN—Wheat, per bush. Penna	1 87—2 03	1 80—2 00	1 60—1 80	.....
do. Maryland,	1 60—1 75	1 60—1 80	1 60—1 75	.....
Rye, per bushel,	1 00—1 12	82— 85	—1 06	1 25—1 33
Corn, do	1 03—1 05	96— 98	1 06—1 12	1 05—1 06
Oats, do	40— 43	33— 34	35— 45	48— 00
Barley, do. Penn	.....	.....	0 00—	0 00—0 00
Peas do	1 00—1 25	00—0 00	— 8	.....
HAY, Timothy, per 100 lbs	0 00—0 00	12 00 pr. ton.	.....	20 00 pr ton.
Meadow Grass,	70— 80	.....	.....	.....
Hemp, American dry rot, ton,	175 00–	6— 7	130 —140	.....
Hops, first sort, 1836, lb	9— 10	— 9	— 10	7— 8
Plaster Paris, per ton,	3 25—0 00	0 00—3 50	2 50—	2 75—0 00
SEEDS—Cloverseed, per bushel,	6 50—7 00	6 00—7 00	.....	15— 16
Flaxseed, rough, do	1 37—1 46	1 37—1 50	8 50—9 50	.....
Timothy,	2 00—0 00	3 25—4 00	12 50–14 00	2 87—3 00
Tallow, per lb	8½— 10	— 10	— 11	10— 11
WOOL—Saxony, fleece, per lb	00— 00	40— 50	75— 80	50— 55
Merino,	45— 50	35— 40	50— 68	45— 47
1-4 and common,	00— 00	25— 30	40— 50	30— 33

Philadelphia Market—November 14.

REMARKS.—FLOUR AND MEAL.—Supplies have increased this week, and prices have again improved 25 cents per bbl. for superfine flour; sales of common to fair brands at $9 50, extra $9 75; sales for export at $9 37½ a 9 50. The stock is light and firmly held at the above rates. Rye Flour has advanced; sales at $5 00 per bbl. Corn Meal, hhds. have sold freely at $22 50 a 23; bbls. at $5 12½; later in the week at $5 06¼; Buckwheat Meal $3 50 per half bbl. GRAIN.—Owing to the limited supplies arriving, Wheat has sold at higher rates. Sales of good to prime lots of Pennsylvania, at $1 95 to 2 03; Southern, $1 90 a 1 95; about 7,000 bushels Foreign, at $1 50 a 1 65; for Odessa, and $1 70 to 1 90 for German. Market now bare. Rye—an import of 5,000 bushels Hamburg, good quality, sold at $1 06. Large sales of domestic, at $1 to 1 07, being 6 cents advance. Sales of Foreign at $1 08 a 1 12½. Corn is scarce and wanted. Sales of flat yellow at $1 to 1 03; prime at 91 to 1 02; New, tolerably dry, at 80 to 83 cents. Oats—sales of Southern at 36; Pennsylvania 40 cents. PROVISIONS.—In Beef, Pork, and Bacon, there is no material change—5 a 600 kegs and tubs of butter have sold at 13½ a 14 cents; sales of Western lard at 9, and Jersey at 10½ a 11 cents per lb. Cheese is steady. RAGS.—Country rags are wanted; sales of No. 1, Leghorn, at 8½ cents per lb. WOOL.—The market has become more animated, and the sales to a fair extent. About 40 to 45,000 lbs of American have been sold, prime fleece at about 45; No. 2, 42½, and common at 30 cents per lb. cash. A large lot of South American sold at 13 cents. CATTLE.—Prices are nearly steady; Beeves at $6 50 to 7 50; Hogs $7, and extra, $7 50 per cwt. Sheep at from $1 75 to $4 25 each.

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